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ABSTRACT

This handbook reviews findings from the research literature on effective schools to ascertain their relevance to Language Arts instruction, and to guide school administrators in their efforts to improve instruction for limited English speaking (LEP) students. The following chapters are included: (1) Introduction; (2) Principal as Instructional Leader; (3) Emphasis on Basic Skills Acquisition; (4) Positive School Climate; (5) High Teacher and Administrator Efficacy; (6) Monitoring Students' Progress; (7) Applying Effective Schools Information to the Instruction of LEP Students; (8) Administering Supplemental Instructional Programs: The Pull-Out Problem. The findings show that effective language instruction requires efficient use of time, appropriate subject matter, clarity, flexibility, and appropriate assessment efforts. A list of references and an annotated bibliography are included. (VM)

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Teacher Training Project
For Bilingual and English
To Speakers of Other Languages Teachers

**A Language Development
Services' Handbook:
What the Effective Schools
Research Tells Us**



William J. Tikunoff

Clemens L. Hallman

March 1987

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**Teacher Training Project
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Services' Handbook:
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Teacher Training Monograph No. 4

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Table Of Contents

Preface	<i>i</i>
Introduction	1
Principal as Instructional Leader	5
Emphasis on Basic Skills Acquisition	7
Positive School Climate	10
High Teacher and Administrator Efficacy	13
Monitoring Students Progress	15
Applying Effective Schools Information to the Instruction of LEP Students	17
Increasing Time for Instruction	19
Administering Supplemental Instructional Programs: The Pull-Out Problem	28
References	35
Annotated Bibliography on Effective Schools Research	39

Preface

Effective teachers and schools have much in common. Recent research on effectiveness in bilingual educational settings yields similar results to that found in "normal" settings over the past twenty (20) years.

Evertson, Hawley and Zlotnik (1984) identify five (5) core teaching skills: (1) maximizing academic learning time, (2) managing and organizing the classroom, (3) utilizing interactive teaching strategies, (4) communicating high expectations, and (5) rewarding student performance.

Tikunoff (1986) presents data based on his research relative to academic learning time, teacher-student interaction, student functional proficiency, organization and delivery of effective instruction, monitoring and analyzing instruction, integrative language development, critical thinking skills and curriculum alignment.

The Florida Performance Measurement System bases a considerable amount of its data base on similar research findings and presents its observational summary in six (6) categories: (1) Planning, (2) Management of Student Conduct, (3) Instructional Organization and Development, (4) Presentation of Subject Matter, (5) Verbal and Non-verbal Communication and (6) Evaluation of Achievement.

What is apparent when analyzing the results of research of the above three (3) reviews is that regardless of whether one is a bilingual, ESOL or a regular classroom teacher, style or mode of teaching, classroom effectiveness requires efficient use of time (and engaged time), appropriate development of subject matter (whether ESOL or content), clarity of instruction, flexibility in the delivery of instruction, and assessment that can be used both for formative as well as for summative purposes.

In this monograph, an attempt is made to empower the local school district administrator* with the knowledge requisite for effective decision making based on effective school research.

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March 1987

* The term "Language Development Services" is used in the title of this monograph to encompass administrators of bilingual education, English to Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL), second language education, and other education programs for LEP students.

Introduction

I'd like to share with you a couple of bodies of research that get at what I think is a dichotomy confronting us in education nationally. First, I will direct my remarks to research on effective schools and what these findings tell us we ought to be doing in our various programs to achieve appropriate instruction for students, particularly those of limited English proficiency. Then I will turn to what we can do to apply some of these research findings to improving instruction for limited English proficient LEP students.

To begin, I will describe three schools I visited recently. All of them have received recognition as exemplary schools.

The first school is an all-Black school located in a middle class community just outside a large urban area. This school was organized along the lines of an education park. All grades, pre-school through high school, were located on the same campus, but with separate administrations for the

* This monograph is based on a presentation made in July 1986 to an invited group of public school administrators at a session at the University of Florida in Gainesville. The author has edited the original transcription of his speech, and inserted bibliographical citations to give proper credit to research he cited. The interpretations of research findings and events are entirely those of the author.

pre-school, lower elementary grades, middle school, and high school. The year I visited, there were about 1,100 students. Students in this school were very business-like in their attitudes toward school. When the bell rang, they were in their seats working and teachers began instruction on time.

Parents at this school believed that an important educational goal was that their children would not lose their self-identity, and would feel good about being Black American citizens. As a matter of fact, from this rather small school district, that year they had won the state championship in the marching band contest, in football, and in forensics and debate, and they were runners-up for just about every contest they entered. From that graduating class of just over 100, students earned 35 scholarships.

The second school is a four-year high school located in a five story brick building in the middle of a burnt out area in a large urban city in the midwest which experienced the riots of the 1960s. This school had an open enrollment policy, with about 5000 students coming from all areas of the city. For the 1400 freshman slots in the coming year, 14,000 applications had already been received. You can imagine the sort of student who was liable to wind up at this school, but grades were not the only factor. Students had to be fairly well-rounded individuals with a seriousness of purpose.

As I walked through this school and talked to students, I asked, "What is your curriculum?" (this was a term they

had learned to use). They responded with dual objectives like, "I'm in biomedicine and performing arts," or "I'm in pre-law and industrial arts," or "I'm in humanities and biology." There was a sense at this school that one ought to be involved not only in academics. In addition, one should be involved in a curriculum that would give one some meaningful experience in a performing art.

I was impressed that there were former graduates of the school among the parents with whom I spoke. In fact, one parent indicated that her grandparents on both sides of the family had attended this school, so there was a sense of history and a sense of keeping this school going that went back many, many years.

The third school is in an affluent community about ninety miles north of a large urban area. Parents could afford to send their children to private schools but preferred to keep them in the local public schools instead. One result was reflected in the contributions parents had made to the school, both monetarily and personally. For example, when I entered the school early in the morning before classes had started, I found students sitting in groups on the floors of the hallways which were carpeted. This was a very cold climate much of the year, so students congregated in the school hallways each morning to study. Their parents contributed the carpeting to make it warmer and more comfortable. Another indication of their interest was that 800 parents were involved from time-to-time as

volunteers to work in the reading lab, the library, and in the offices with whatever had to be taken care of.

One young man whom I interviewed, who had been having some difficulty academically, was most impressed about the strict rule enforcement at this school. "You can't get away with anything!" he stated. I asked him for an example, and he replied, "The first day I was here I was tardy to class, and do you know I had to go to the office and they wouldn't let me go back to class until one of my parents came to school." I asked him if he had ever been tardy again, and he said, "No way would I ever be tardy again!"

We can all describe schools very much like these three. What do they have in common? Well, I don't think you'll be surprised. You're all familiar with the literature on effective schools.

Five dimensions have been identified in the research as being critical (Bell, 1961). First, strong instructional leadership is exerted by the school principal, who focuses efforts of the entire staff on setting and achieving goals with relation to increasing all students' performance in academic skills. Second, instructional emphasis is upon basic skills, and the total staff accepts this as their primary instructional goal. Third, a school climate is provided that is conducive to learning; effective schools are safe, orderly places with few vandalism and discipline problems. Fourth, the entire staff exhibits a high sense of efficacy, and expectations are that all students can reach appropriate levels of achievement. Fifth, to ensure that

instructional goals are being met, there is in place a monitoring system for assessing and tracking student progress toward successful academic skills development.

I found these characteristics present and operating successfully in these three schools, even though they were manifested in different ways. Most importantly, all students who attended these schools -- not just the brightest and the most talented -- were doing well academically and socially. This is a significant point to keep in mind as we examine the five characteristics of effective schools because, if a school is effective in addressing the needs of all kinds of students, then LEP students will be among those students who are succeeding.

Principal As Instructional Leader

An effective school first of all has a principal in charge who is an instructional leader. This is a principal who believes that the primary goal of school is learning and teaching, and who takes the leadership in curriculum alignment. This is accomplished by putting the entire faculty together as a team to plan through the grades, across the grades, and across the curriculum what the objectives are not only for instruction but for social development. A system of rewards and sanctions is mutually established among teachers, parents, and students and is made public, and agreement is reached among all these groups concerning what school is all about and how people are going to proceed for the year.

When I visit schools I don't find effective principals in their offices. I find them in classrooms. I find them working with students, I find them working with teachers. Recent studies characterize an effective principal as a clinician (Wise et al., 1984). In this role, the clinician guides teachers through a process of observation and consultation, providing guided support.

Teacher evaluations, for example, begin with sitting down with a teacher before the evaluation and identifying the instructional goals for that lesson, what the teacher hopes to accomplish, and how this accomplishment will be measured. After observing the lesson, the principal immediately debriefs the teacher in terms of reaching some understanding of what was seen. Where instructional improvement is required, principals are able to recommend strategies, provide modeling and demonstration, or identify resources outside the school. New goals are then set that the teacher wants to achieve, and it is from this information that the principal then designs staff development programs.

This is the principal who is an instructional leader. And incidentally, the way that this varies from elementary to junior to senior high school is that the more responsibility one is given in terms of the size of the school, the number of students, and the degree of departmentalization, the more the principal involves the leaders at the various department levels in the decision making and in assuming some of the responsibility for some

of the instructional supervision (Ward, 1983). High school principals, for example, spend a great deal of time in the communities, and there has to be somebody back on base to assume some of these other responsibilities. In addition, in effective high schools, you will find principals organizing advisory committees composed of students, parents and teachers.

Emphasis On Basic Skills Acquisition

The second characteristic of effective schools is an emphasis upon basic skills acquisition. Everyone agrees that the job of school is to learn and to acquire those important basic skills of reading, writing, thinking, problem solving and to be able to apply these skills in content areas like math, science, social studies, literature and so forth.

This commitment to teaching basic skills is so strong that quite often you find that the responsibility for teaching basic skills is assumed by all teachers. Reading, for example, is taught as a skill related to acquiring information for different content areas. Thus, the skills of reading social studies texts are taught by social studies teachers; following auto repair manuals by the auto shop teacher, translating word problems into mathematical formulas by the math teachers, and so forth. There is a conscious effort on the part of the entire faculty to get rid of all the external interference and to get the tasks of basic skills teaching accomplished first.

These are schools that don't hold still for teaching higher cognitive skills only to those students who can read. Teachers believe that all students will be confronted with similar problems which will require problem solving. Thus, students who are not as experienced or as adept at reading are engaged in critical thinking skill development.

This is a particularly salient point for the instruction of LEP students, who frequently are placed in low-ability groups or tracks simply because they have not yet mastered English. In these situations, if they cannot read in English, it is assumed that LEP students cannot perform higher cognitive tasks. However, even when it is not possible to teach bilingually because no teacher is available who possesses the appropriate language, it is possible to teach higher order cognitive skills while teaching reading (Restaino-Baumann, 1985). What is required is knowledge of specific instructional strategies to accomplish this, and apparently these are in use in effective schools.

Whenever I ask students in effective schools, "How much time do you study every night?" I get a response somewhere in the neighborhood of four hours of studying per night on the average. (In less effective schools, the average is somewhat less, between an hour and an hour and a half.) As a matter of fact, at one school I visited the student body president invited me to a track meet that evening, and I agreed to attend for a few minutes before I went in to meet with their parents. I was interested in watching to see who

engaged in track and what other kinds of activities occupied their time when they were not competing in an event. You know what they were doing when they were not in an event at the moment? They were sitting about studying, either individually or in groups. They had been taught to make use of every available minute.

Now, that's not to say that these schools don't involve students in other activities, because they do. As a matter of fact, you will find that in effective junior high and senior high schools, where extracurricular activities are important, there is a concerted effort on the part of staff to get students doing things other than simply studying. All students are encouraged to participate in club activities and intramural and interscholastic sports of all kinds, and to develop interests outside their academic focus.

Students in effective schools have a sense of purpose and a sense of destiny, a sense of who they are in this process called schooling. They structure their lives outside school in order to accomplish what becomes very important to them, and they give up things like television. They are very conscious that if they only have one precious hour in an evening to watch television, they pick very carefully what it is they are going to watch. They use time wisely, and don't appear to waste it.

Positive School Climate

A third characteristic of effective schools is the positive school climate that one finds on campus. Now, we've heard a lot about school climate. Let me describe what the literature of effective schools seems to infer by this.

Tomlinson (1981) identified the conditions necessary for learning in school. He described a business-like atmosphere, free from violence, free from threat, free from people wandering the halls and disrupting classes -- an atmosphere that is supportive to achieve effective instruction.

In effective schools, the school climate is orderly and routine. A published discipline code exists that is handed to students when they first walk onto campus. Principals make certain that parents receive the code. Everybody knows what the sanctions are when someone violates a rule, and everyone knows what the rewards are when they stay in line. Whenever I have asked, "Where did this code come from?" the response has been, "This code was drafted by students, their parents, and teachers."

No one is tardy. When the bell rings to signify the beginning of class, people get to work immediately. When the dismissal bell sounds, people pack up quickly and move along. And the principal and his office work to keep the call slips from interfering. Counselors take on a whole new attitude when sending for students from classrooms. They pick times other than basic skills instructional time. But

having negotiated this with the faculty, the faculty understands the importance of counseling, and counselors understand the importance of basic skills instruction. Frequently, schools will schedule time during the day to allow appointments to be made, like extending the lunch hour or beginning school early.

An atmosphere such as this makes maximum use of time available for instruction. By increasing instructional time, we increase the likelihood that more teaching and learning will take place. The literature on student engaged time tells us that the more students are engaged in task completion, the more likely they will learn the skills and knowledge contained in that task. Policy makers across the nation have latched onto this finding, and have begun to examine their own situations.

However, we should all be concerned about the use of only engaged time, or time-on-task, for policy making for at least two reasons. First, this body of literature has too frequently been interpreted as, "The more a student is engaged, the more a student learns." We need to be concerned as well with the quality of that time, so a more precise measure looks at students' accuracy rates in addition to mere engagement rates (Fisher et al., 1978). Policy which only increases time -- by adding minutes to each day and days to the school year -- evades the issue of whether or not increased time will result in more quality of instruction (Karweit, 1985).

Second, being time efficient is not automatically a virtue. I invite any adult in this audience to be engaged a high percentage of the time in your work day. The myth is that we should produce a minute's worth of product for every minute we are working. However, what we know about time efficiency suggests that the closer we get to a 1-to-1 ratio of time engaged and time produced, the closer we are to being dysfunctional in other ways. Time efficient persons are usually described as business-like, but also are prone to be humorless workaholics who have little time for anything other than their work. We need to be careful that this is not the behavior we want to produce in our students.

How can we increase time and thus make for a more productive school climate? One possible way is to get rid of external intrusions on instructional time, intrusions from outside the classroom over which teachers have very little control. For example, I have never talked to a group of school principals about external intrusions that did not go back to their schools and examine how much they really had to use the public address system. When I am in effective schools, I find the "squawk box" being used only for a regular ten period each day to communicate information. This is typically during the home room time in secondary settings, and typically during the early morning in elementary settings. There are many similar external intrusions that can be examined for their usefulness and eliminated or modified where possible.

Principals exist, among other things, to solve administrative problems like external intrusions to instruction. If they don't take them on, and if they don't get support for solving them from their supervisors, then we get farther and farther away from the task of instruction, and we lose more and more precious instructional time.

High Teacher and Administrator Efficacy

The fourth characteristic of effective schools is a high sense of efficacy on the part of teachers and administrators. Efficacy is the belief that one has an effect on something. In schools, this means believing that you can teach and students will learn, or that you can administer and people will follow if you involve them in the decision making process. This sense of efficacy is so important and runs through the literature so strongly that we can't ignore it.

High efficacy particularly is important in schools that are populated with large numbers of LEP and other minority students. The tendency to categorize students into groups needing specialized instruction merely because of their limited English proficiency or cultural backgrounds often leads to removing them from regular classrooms and placing them into special classes. Instead, a principal and staff exhibiting high efficacy would participate in staff development to develop knowledge and skills to allow them to deal successfully with the instruction of LEP and other minority students.

A great part of developing high efficacy is the support of the entire school system that builds this belief on a school staff. In schools, teachers are socialized into believing who they are and into developing a self-image in the same manner as are the students (Schleety, 1976; Lortie, 1975). Thus, they tend to raise or lower their performance directly with relation to how they are perceived and treated by the administration, the school board, and the parents and community.

This is the principle of the self-fulfilling prophecy working in the same manner with teachers as it does with students. In the case of students, teacher expectations that students will do better or not as well inform their behavior toward these students in ways that carry out these expectations. As a result of this differential teacher behavior toward them, students begin to believe that they, indeed, are either of high or low ability and begin to act out this belief in their performance (Brophy & Good, 1974; Good, 1986).

Well, teachers behave in similar ways. If they are the recipients of consistent behavior on the part of principals, superintendents, and boards of education that communicates that teachers are expendable, it isn't going to take very long for teachers to begin to believe that, indeed, they don't count. Teachers translate this attitude into a belief that decision makers place a low priority on effective instruction.

Those of us who have been in a position to do so whenever we have been in this situation have moved out of teaching and gone on to do something else where our productivity may be more appreciated. The rest of us, for a variety of reasons, stick it out as long as we can, or we move up in the ranks of decision making roles to try to better this situation and soon learn how difficult this is to do. We can't afford to lose good teachers. I would encourage every one of you to work as hard as you can to make sure that your teachers believe that the job they are doing is important and that they are getting the appropriate support to do well.

Monitoring Students' Progress

The fifth characteristic of effective schools is that in these schools we find a system for monitoring students' progress toward achieving instructional objectives. Such a system involves aligning the curriculum so that there is congruence among (1) what the curriculum will include, (2) what the instructional objectives are, (3) what the instruction will be like, and (4) what the performance of students is in terms of expectations and performance (Tikunoff, 1985a; Scott & Brock, 1983).

To keep track of students with respect to performance in this system requires that any measurement will test what was taught and, therefore, what should have been learned. Assessment of this nature does not rely on achievement test data unless tests contain items which test skills and

knowledge that was the focus of instruction at a given grade level. Instead, an effective student performance monitoring system would feature frequent, brief measurement referenced to skills and objectives covered during a period of instruction. Using these data allows school staffs to adjust instruction to be sure that curriculum is being covered appropriately.

With respect to the LEP populations, one area of testing concern is the use of oral proficiency tests to determine more than their English language proficiency. Several problems exist with these tests and their use. Oral language proficiency measures do not predict academic achievement (Cummins, 1981; Canale, 1983; Oller, 1979). They do not relate to how well a LEP student can perform classroom instructional tasks (Tikunoff, 1985b; Klee, 1984; Cummins, 1983). Even if they could do these things, there is no standardization across various oral language assessments, so where several different instruments are used, there is no way to obtain consistency of findings across them (Gillmore & Dickerson, 1979; Ulibarri et al., 1981; Hayes, 1981). Thus, oral proficiency assessment data cannot inform placement of LEP students into appropriate levels of instruction. Instead, content-specific tests are required in the same way as with non-LEP students.

This is not to say that achievement measures are not used in effective schools, because they are used if this is a district or state requirement. But in addition, teachers take a great deal of time monitoring students' progress on a

daily basis. Counselors are kept aware of how well students are doing and when the trouble spots are cropping up, and there is an attitude on the part of students that they know how well they are progressing.

So this fifth characteristic of effective schools suggests that what we need to think about is how to get our monitoring system moving such that we know the trouble spots before they crop up.

Applying Effective Schools Information to the Instruction of LEP Students

What does the literature of effective schools tell us about appropriate instruction of LEP students? First of all, in an effective school one would expect to find that special language services for LEP students have been integrated into the regular instructional program. As instructional leader, the principal would have led the way in planning with his staff for the instruction of all students. Considerable planning would have gone into assuring that goals and curriculum are aligned across the various instructional settings for students at a given grade level, as well as across grade levels. A system would be in place that monitors the degree to which agreed-upon instructional goals were being taught, and assesses students' progress toward achieving them. Across the entire staff, a sense of efficacy would exist, with teachers believing that all students could learn, and that they could successfully teach students at all academic levels. In

short, the school climate would convey a business-like atmosphere, with teaching and learning the most important ongoing activity, and the learning needs of LEP students being accommodated alongside those of all other students.

Obviously, a school which is effective for all students is also effective for LEP students. However, there is a great deal of difference between understanding what are the characteristics of effective schools and actually making them operational in a given school. What little we know about the process of bringing about change in the way of educational innovation suggests that this takes a great deal of time, is sometimes very costly, and is entirely contingent upon the interpersonal dynamics of the school staff. In particular, lasting changes result from a principal who is the sort of instructional leader described earlier, and who provides the incentive and support for trying out new ideas (Berman & McLaughlin, 1978).

Given that we cannot change schools along the lines of these characteristics of effectiveness all at once, what can we focus on that would give us maximum improvement? Two aspects come immediately to mind. First, we can increase time allocated to instruction and focus on making this instructional time more effective. This would benefit all students, not just LEP students. Second, we can examine some of our practices in administering supplemental programs like special language services for LEP students in light of what research tells us works and what doesn't work. Let's look at each of these two aspects.

Increasing Time for Instruction

Time has become an important dimension of schooling, particularly because it relates so strongly to issues of cost effectiveness. If I were a parent sending my children to school, I would assume that in a six hour school day there potentially would be 360 minutes of what Carroll (1963) called Opportunity to Learn (OTL) time. Carroll defined OTL time as time available during which there is present both on-task student behavior and an overlap between curriculum and test content. If I were told that it is not possible to have these conditions 100 percent of the time during a school day, then I would have to ask, "What are those things that get in the way of opportunity to learn?"

Let's examine this question in light of what we know about schools and how they work. The total amount of time available in a school day is 6 hours on the average, or 360 minutes. To answer our question, we would have to subtract time for those things that take away from this potential OTL time. To do this, let's classify distractions from OTL time in terms of two kinds of intrusions on time: external intrusions, or things outside the classroom that interfere with OTL time; and internal intrusions, or things inside the classroom that take away from instruction. The amount of time remaining will be what teachers can actually allocate to instruction.

What do we already know we automatically have to subtract from the 360 minutes automatically in terms of required external intrusions on instructional time? In most

schools these would include things such as lunch time, recess time, and transition time between classes. Since these activities are normal requirements of the school day, there is probably little we can do to eliminate them. Other external intrusions, however, can be somewhat controlled. These include such things as hall passes, call slips from the office, fire drills, assemblies, announcements on the public address system, testing, and home room. Combined, how much time do you think external intrusions like these take away from OTL time? (NOTE: During the ensuing discussion, it was determined that, on the average, external intrusions accounted for 120 minutes each day.) About 120 minutes, or one third of the time, can be attributed to external intrusions on OTL time. This leaves 240 minutes remaining, as depicted by Figure 1.

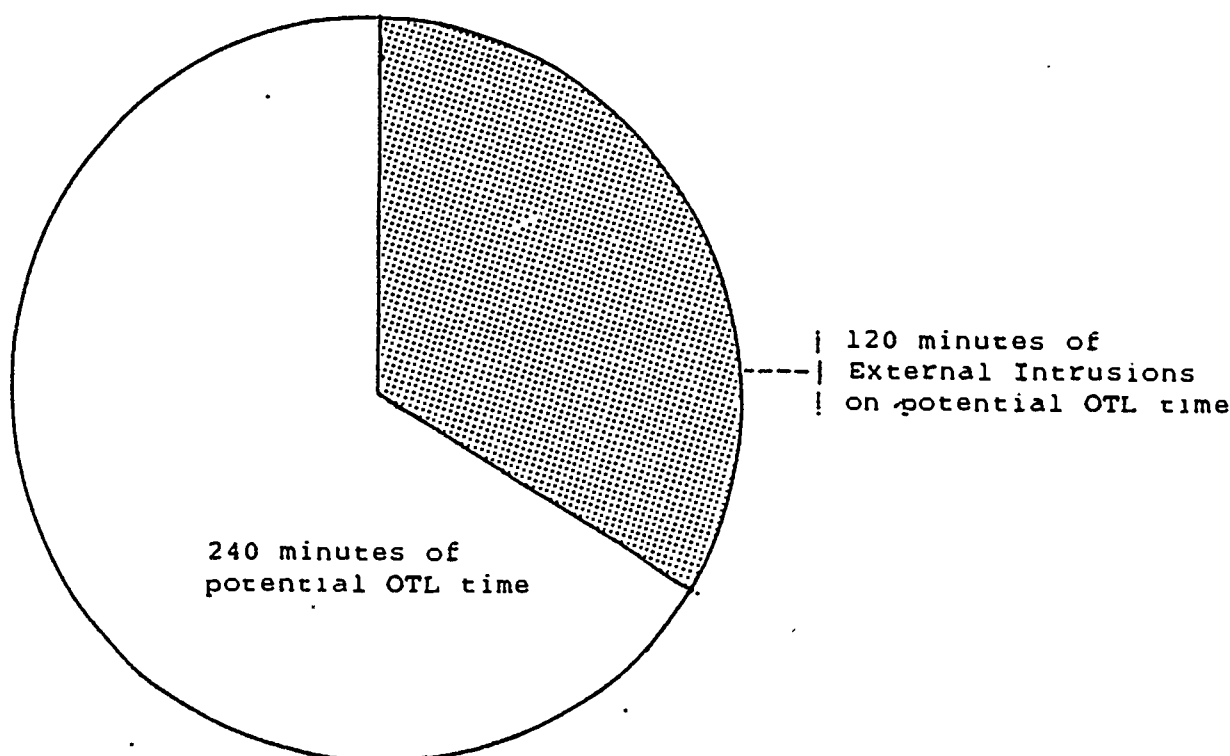


Figure 1. External intrusions on potential OTL time.

What about internal intrusions, or things inside the classroom that take away from OTL time? Among these are things such as transitions between subjects, attendance taking, general bookkeeping (like collecting lunch money, milk money, keeping track of student performance scores as a requirement of a special-funded educational program), keeping discipline, and passing out materials and collecting them. How much time is accounted for by internal intrusions? (NOTE: The group discussion determined that internal intrusions accounted for another 120 minutes.) If internal intrusions take up another 120 minutes, this leaves only one third of the school day -- or 120 minutes -- left for allocation to instruction. This is depicted by Figure 2.

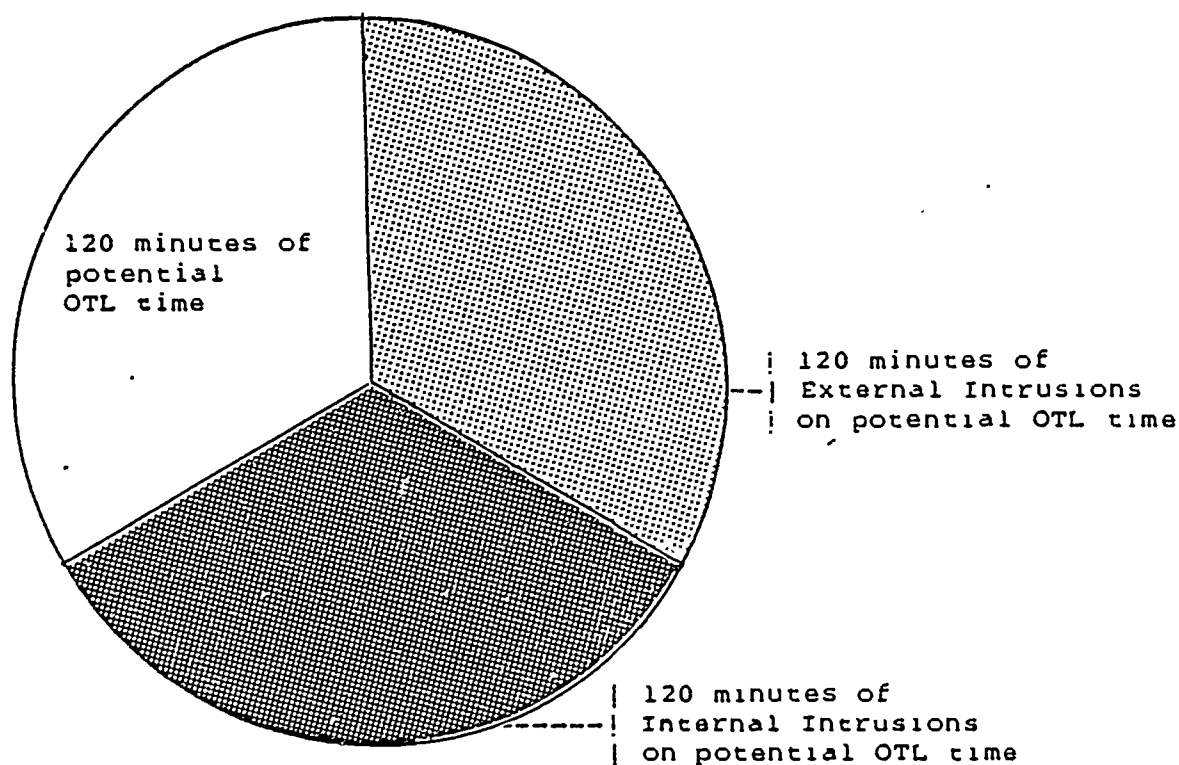


Figure 2. External and internal intrusions on potential OTL time

Does this appear to be unusual? To answer this question, let's look at data from a study I was privileged to conduct recently, the Significant Bilingual Instructional Features (SBIF) study (Tikunoff, 1985c; 1985d). We were interested in how much allocated instructional time a teacher would actually have in a day. We sat in 58 classrooms in six sites across the country for ten full days observing the instruction. Our 58 teachers were nominated as among the most successful bilingual teachers at their respective schools. Six different ethnolinguistic student groups were represented in our sample: Navajo students in Window Rock, Arizona; Chinese and Chinese American students in San Francisco and Oakland, California; Cuban and Cuban American students in Dade County, Florida; Puerto Rican students in New York City; Mexican and Mexican American students in El Paso Texas; and in San Francisco, some heterolingual classrooms in which the children were from a number of different ethnolinguistic backgrounds.

Each day, we started a stop watch when the school day began. We kept the watch running so long as teachers were instructing. Anytime they interrupted instruction to handle external or internal intrusions, we turned off the watch. When they started instructing again, we started the watch again.

We observed all day for ten days across four months in the Spring of 1981. We found that on the average these teachers allocated 128 minutes per day to basic skills instruction, and that this was 75% of the time allocated to

all instruction; so, totally, they allocated on the average of 170 minutes to instruction per day.

This is higher than what we concluded earlier, but remember that these were very effective teachers. What we know about effective teachers from the literature is that along with other dimensions of classroom instruction, they are good time managers. Thus, they were able to eliminate many internal intrusions on OTL time and increase the time remaining for instruction. It is important to keep in mind that, while teachers can exert little control over external intrusions, they have a great deal of control over internal intrusions. For example, Behnke et al. (1981) found that, by focusing on and identifying the nature of internal intrusions on instruction, teachers were able to devise strategies to eliminate them. Interestingly, Behnke and his colleagues found that the greatest amount of time spent in handling internal intrusions was in stopping instruction to get the same two or three students back on task.

Now, we've heard a lot about the concept, time-on-task, and we've all been influenced by it. The time-on-task literature tells us that the more time that a student spends at accomplishing a task, the more likely the student will learn whatever skill or knowledge is contained within the task. What's new? Teachers have known this right along. But it wasn't until 1974 with the Beginning Teacher Evaluation Study (BTES) that we were able as researchers to prove that this is the case. In addition to the amount of time-on-task, the BTES researchers were interested in how

much of this time students were completing tasks accurately. In essence, they were assuming that it isn't so much time itself as it is the quality of instruction during that time which produces student learning. So they developed a measure which they labeled Academic Learning Time (ALT) (Fisher et al., 1978).

To get to an example of ALT, let's use the SBIF data presented earlier. Further, let's use the 128 minutes of time which teachers allocated to basic skills instruction. Our first question is, "How much of this time was a student actually engaged in appropriate task completion?" In the SBIF we had 4 target students in each class for a total of 232 students in the study sample. Students ranged in degrees of limited English proficiency from knowing little English to being fully bilingual, equally divided among boys and girls, and were in grades Kindergarten through the sixth grade.

To determine engagement, we observed these target students as they worked on instructional tasks, using stop watches to record how much of the time they were engaged. Our rule was that students were engaged when they were paying attention to the teacher, following instruction, working on work sheets, reading, responding orally to the teacher's questions, and so forth. When they looked away or became "disengaged" or idle, we stopped the watch since we could not determine in this situation whether or not they were actually engaged in task completion.

On the average, students in our study were engaged .82

percent of the time allocated to instruction for a total of 105 minutes of engaged time (see Figure 3. Now remember, these are data for LEP students, grades K-6, collected between January and May 1981.

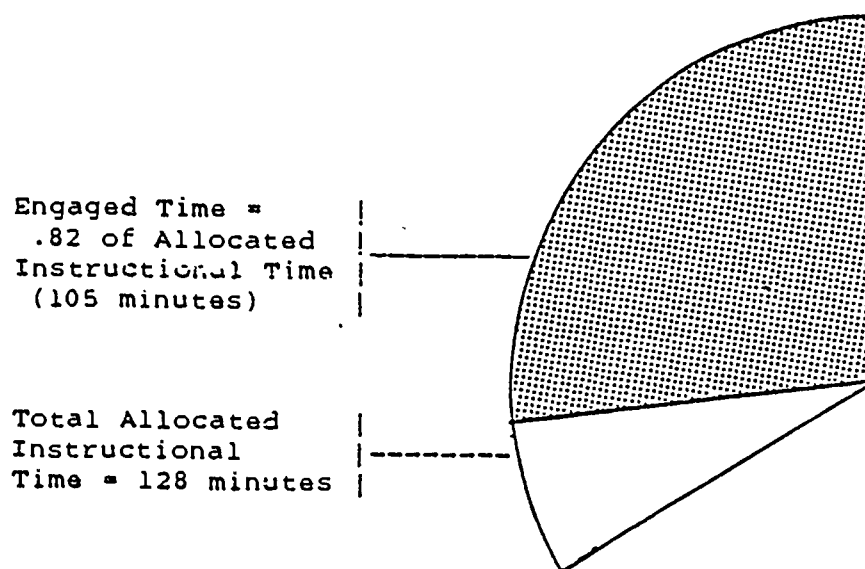


Figure 3. Amount of allocated instructional time in which SBIF study students were engaged.

In addition to engagement in task completion, we wanted to know how much of this time students were being accurate. In elementary school instruction in basic skills, there is a lot of recitation, seatwork, and working on tasks, so it is relatively easy to observe students engaged in these activities and, by listening and watching, to determine how much of the time they are being accurate in their responses. In the SBIF study, of the time engaged in instruction, target students were accurate 80 percent of the time, for a total of 84 minutes of ALT each day. This is depicted by Figure 4.

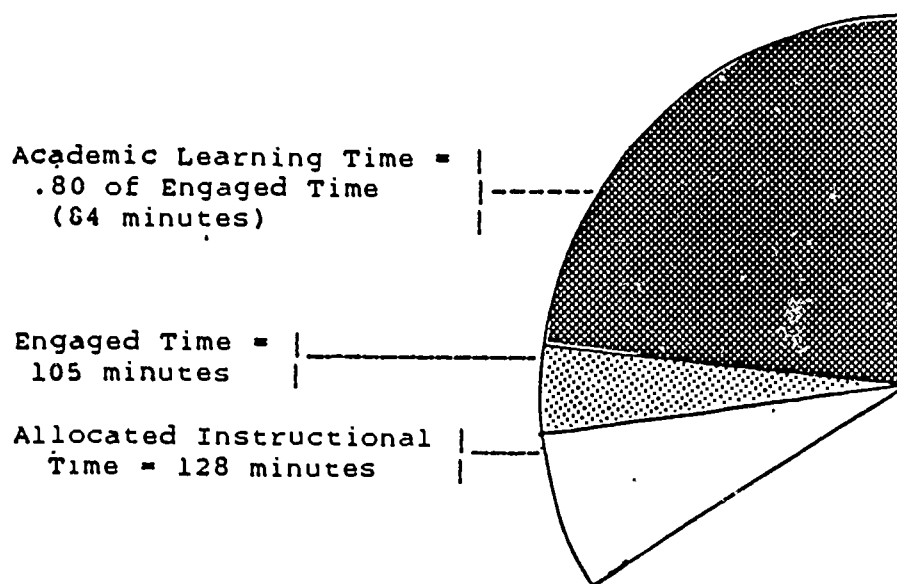


Figure 4. Amount of allocated time in which SBIF study students were engaged with high accuracy

Now, what's going on here? These are LEP students, and we are told that LEP students need to learn English before they can get on with the tasks of basic skills acquisition. Obviously, the teachers in the SBIF study demonstrated their effectiveness, both in the amount of time they were able to allocate to instruction and in the amount of ALT their students were able to accumulate. Given students of only one minority language group, most of whom were dominant in that language, teachers in our study could teach both in the LEP students' native language (L1) and in English (L2). They alternated between English and L1 for instruction, using English an average of 60 percent of the time instruction and L1 or a combination of L1 and English 35 percent of the time. In addition, there was 5 percent of the time when teachers were silent.

Now remember, this varied across classes, age groups, and language groups because we were reporting averages across ten full school days for 58 classrooms. Thus, instruction in one language or the other varied across the six ethnolinguistic groups of students we studied, as well as across grade levels. Determinants of average use of both languages included factors like local school district policy, and the experiential levels of LEP students with regard to English acquisition.

What this adds up to, then, is that students in the SBIF study achieved 84 minutes of ALT on the average each day they were observed. By comparison, in the BTES where an unknown sample of teachers were used, the average

Administering Supplemental Instructional Programs: The Pull-out Problem

In most schools, categorical instructional programs like instruction for LEP students tend to be perceived as supplementary to the regular instructional program. One common way of providing supplementary instruction is by way of a pull-out instructional program. Students who are perceived to require additional instruction in basic skills are pulled out of their regular classes to receive this instruction with a specialist, resource teacher. Potentially among such students are limited English proficient students if English-as-a-second language (ESL) instruction is provided outside the regular classroom. In some cases, Hispanic LEP students qualify for so many special programs they are pulled out of their regular classes six or seven times each day (Hill & Kimbrough, 1981).

Thus, LEP students frequently are isolated for special language instruction by placing them either in bilingual education classrooms or pulling them out of the regular classroom to receive special language services. Very little effort is made to engage regular classroom teachers and teachers of LEP students in careful planning to ensure that instruction being received by LEP students aligns with regular classroom instruction.

This act of isolation places LEP students at considerable instructional risk since there is little assurance that the instruction being received by them is

congruent with what is taught in the regular instructional program. When students are pulled out of their regular classes, one possible result is that they miss critical pieces of instruction. For example, they may miss instruction that introduces new skills. They may receive less time to practice new skills than is provided for students who remain in the regular classroom. Hence, their acquisition of new skills will be placed at risk merely because they are not present to receive instruction in them.

What is more, students who are pulled out of the regular classroom most frequently are those who require the most time to learn the norms and the time management skills that are essential for successful learning in the regular classroom (Good, 1986). Because of their frequent absences from the regular classroom, these students receive less exposure to the language and activities of the regular classroom, and as a result they run the risk of violating teacher and peer performance expectations (Florio, 1978).

In addition, the teaching methods and instructional materials in the regular and pull-out classrooms may be incompatible (Hill and Kimbrough, 1981), and the demands for successful completion of tasks and activities may differ (Tikunoff, 1985d). Students who need carefully planned, sequential instruction are placed at highest risk.

Another negative factor of pull-out instruction is that students in these programs are perceived to be of low ability. Research indicates that instructional emphases vary for students of differing ability levels. Based on

their perceptions of students' ability, teachers' expectations for how well students will perform cause them to differentiate instruction (Brophy and Good, 1974; Good, 1986). The result is potentially debilitating for low ability students who are the most frequent recipients of pull-out instructional programs.

When working with students they perceive to be of low ability, teachers tend to focus primarily on repetition of low level skill development (Eder, 1981). Thus, low ability students probably will receive little if any instruction in development of the pivotal skills assigned to their grade level. Instruction of low ability students also tends to be less exciting instruction, places less emphasis on comprehension and concept development, and includes more rote drill and practice (Good and Marshall, 1984). Teachers explain the purpose of what they are doing far less often (Lanier et al., 1981), instruction is paced more slowly (Barr, 1975), and instructional materials are less challenging (Rosenbaum, 1976). In addition, teachers indulge in more behavior management with low ability students (Eder, 1981). In short, low ability students get fewer and poorer learning opportunities (Hallinan, 1984).

Differential teacher behavior also can affect variance in instruction for minority students. Hispanic students, for example, have been found to be recipients of more behavior sanctioning and less language with relation to academics (U. S. Commission on Civil Rights, 1975). For LEP students, the use of a bilingual instructional aide

in the classroom tempts teachers to assign LEP students to the bilingual instructional aide because both languages can be used for instruction. This practice may result in even greater differential instructional treatment, particularly if the aide is not instructionally as competent as the teacher.

So what can we do? Obviously, not all of us work in schools which can be called effective according to the research literature. What can one do in such a less-than-deal situation, particularly when one is in charge of implementing a supplementary educational program like those provided for LEP students?

Two aspects are paramount. First, instructional goals for LEP students must be congruent with those for other students. This is the only way to insure that LEP students will receive instructional opportunity to learn the skills and knowledge of the regular curriculum. It is the basis of the regular curriculum on which all students' performance will be measured at the end of the year -- including LEP students' performance. Therefore, to provide them with a curriculum that is not aligned with the regular curriculum is doing them a great disservice.

This is a critical accomplishment, and yet at times it will not be easy. Instructional programs for LEP students are perceived by "regular" teachers to be somehow outside the regular instructional program. This is true whether LEP students are receiving instruction in a self-contained classroom or on a pull-out basis. Efforts must be made to

convince them otherwise. It is ultimately the responsibility of the person in charge of delivering instructional services to LEP students to make certain that curriculum goals for them align with those of the regular instructional program. The only way this can be accomplished is to engage in continuing communication with regular classroom teachers, hopefully planning together the curriculum that will be taught in both the regular and LEP students' instructional settings.

This is most easily accomplished when the school principal realizes the importance of instructional planning. In the absence of this support, the job becomes tougher, but it is just as critical.

A second aspect of instructional alignment between the regular and LEP students' instructional programs is with regard to the task and instructional activity demands made on students. Instruction for LEP students should convey as closely as possible the same task and activity demands they will come into contact with when they are in regular classrooms.

English language development is a must. Throughout the program of instruction for LEP students, teachers need to focus on development of their English with relation to the language of instruction. Only when they understand in English the task and activity demands of a monolingual English instructional setting can assurances be made that they are functionally proficient enough to engage in instruction in the regular classroom.

Further instructional risk is produced by decisions made by schools with regard to what is not provided in typical ESL programs for LEP students. Whether taught in a self-contained classroom or as a pull-out instructional program, ESL instruction tends to focus on developing students' oral English language skills, more specifically oral production of English and with regard to negotiating social situations. While these are important skills to learn, they do not produce student learning related to understanding task and instructional activity demands in the regular classroom.

Two areas of English language development are of particular concern. Both deal with learning the language of instruction, which is a very special English code tied to understanding the underlying demands of classroom instruction.

For example, consider main idea, an important reading skill. When teaching reading, teachers ask students to identify the main idea, beginning with short passages and building to lengthier, more complex passages. While there are many ways of eliciting this knowledge, too frequently teachers utilize only one way. Rather than use possible variations such as, "Tell me what this story is all about," "What is the main idea of the story?" "What is the topic of this paragraph?" "What is the author's theme?" "What happened?" All of these utterances request the same information, yet the language is sufficiently different in each of them. Teachers who use only one variation place LEP

students at risk since achievement tests may use another variation, and future teachers may use yet another. What is required, then, is focusing on the many variations of instructional language which contain the same demands for information since LEP students need to become familiar with the differences in the language used (Tikunoff, 1985a).

The other area is with regard to teaching the language of task and instructional activity demands. Tasks and activities in which students engage in regular classroom instruction contain precise language which conveys understanding of what is being demanded by the teacher. If this language is not taught to LEP students, they will not be able to decode and understand what is being required of them (Tikunoff, 1985a). In addition, in pull-out ESL instructional settings, the ESL teacher must be aware of how task and activity demands may vary between the regular classroom and the pull-out classroom. Teaching the instructional language with respect to one set of demands may not necessarily enable LEP students to understand what is required in the other setting (Tikunoff, 1985d).

More attention is needed as well in teaching LEP students those English skills inherent in the language of instruction. Only then can they be expected to understand what is required during instruction in the regular classroom.

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Ward, B. A. (1983a, November). Effective schools: A response to the educational proposals of 1983. Invited address to the Mid-Atlantic Regional Conference of the National Education Association, Washington, DC.

Wise, A. E., Darling-Hammond, L., McLaughlin, M. W., and Bernstein, H. T. (1984, June). Teacher evaluation: A study of effective practices (National Institute of Education Report R-3139-NIE). Santa Monica, CA: Rand.

ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY ON EFFECTIVE SCHOOLS RESEARCH

Bloom, B. (1984). The search for methods of group instruction as effective as one-to-one tutoring. Educational Leadership, May, 4-17.

Using a variety of approaches and combinations of approaches Bloom suggests ways of improving student learning. He begins by pointing to research results that significantly favor the use of tutoring and mastery learning to enhance student learning. Since the extensive use of tutoring is too expensive an undertaking for most systems, he suggests that the use of mastery learning in combination with some other practical methods that appear to enable students to learn very effectively. This paper reviews some of the interesting and current literature on teaching and learning and shows that much can be done to improve student higher mental process learning and achievement.

Brookover, W. B. 1985. Can we make schools effective for minority students? Journal of Negro Education. Vol 54. 3, 257-268.

The author argues that the ethnocentrism that applied to this country fifty years ago still exists to a large degree. In schools this issue exists to the extent that teachers and children believe learning will not occur for some. "With the advent of IQ tests and the technology of norm-referenced testing, designed to discriminate among individuals and groups, more sophisticated criteria were available to justify the discrimination." Some exceptional schools exist that illustrate how all children in some schools are achieving and Brookover identifies the correlates in these schools. The ideology, organizational structure and instructional practices of these schools are outlined. Further, the author says we must use the data from these examples of effective schools to change beliefs that serve to maintain the inferior status of some children.

Brophy, J. (1986). Classroom management techniques. Education and Urban Society. 18, 182-194.

In the past 15 years the issue of classroom management has been studied and the literature now provides the researcher with some reading on the theoretical and methodological research on classroom management. Brophy makes a point of stating that it is now possible to systematically train teachers to organize and manage their classrooms as effective learning environments and to prepare them to respond to students' chronic personal and behavioral problems with workable methods. Further, Brophy recommends that teacher training institutions respond to this information and provide exposure for their teachers.

Cruikshank, D. R. (1985). Applying research on teacher clarity. Journal of Teacher Education, April/May, 44-48.

A primary focus of this paper is to present some of what has been learned about teacher clarity. Clarity, as it is perceived by the student, is a multidimensional phenomenon that means the teacher can exercise a wide range of behaviors to make what is being taught more clear. The skills that contribute to clarity appear to be stable across time and content. Further, there is a significant relationship between teacher clarity, student achievement and student satisfaction.

Cruikshank presents some of the implications for preservice and inservice education from his findings on teacher clarity. His ideas include the notion that teacher educators must be models of effective teaching in order to validate the issue for those in professional preparation programs. Implications for further research on the topic of clarity is an additional feature of this paper.

DeBevoise, W. (1984). "Synthesis of research on the principal as instructional leader, Educational Leadership. February, 41, 14-20.

"The quest for a clearer understanding of what makes certain principals more effective than others has spanned several decades." The most recent studies noted here do not examine personal characteristics of school principals. Earlier research focused on characteristics such as gender and age, however, the research examined here addresses the interrelationships of characteristics of school principals and how these may prove to have a measured effect on student achievement.

Ellson, D. (1986). Improving productivity in teaching, Phi Delta Kappan, October, 111-124.

Ellson reviews 75 research studies that he feels have up to now been largely overlooked by the school establishment in improving productivity in teaching. He reviews only research studies that have revealed a significant increase in school effectiveness through the use of a variety of teaching technologies.

Evertson, C., Willis, H., and Zlotnik, M. (1984). The Characteristics of effective teacher preparation programs: A review of research. Prepared under subcontract for the Education Analysis Center. Office of Planning, Budget, and Evaluation. United States Department of Education.

Teacher preparation programs are effective to the extent that they effect the capabilities of teachers to bring about learning in their students. This report asks the questions, (1) do we need teacher preparation programs and (2) what is the necessary content and pattern of instruction that make up

the complete program. This report examines a large number of studies in an attempt to answer these questions and concludes by reviewing the research on effective classroom teaching practices.

Exemplary Staff Development Programs, (1985). The School Administrator. (Taking Action For Excellence - 1984 AASA Annual Report). February and March.

Two issues of The School Administrator describe 17 exemplary staff development programs selected by the Advisory Panel of the National Center for the Improvement of Learning (NCIL). Program descriptions include size and location of district, name of the district superintendent and the particular model used to facilitate participation by the professional staff. Issues of release time, college credit, clinical supervision, training of principals in instructional supervision, etc. are discussed in relation to successful learning in schools.

Gilbert, S. E. and Gay, G. 1985. Improving the success in school of poor black children. Phi Delta Kappan. October. 7. 133-37.

Research on effective schools is consistent with regard to the idea that school climate must change in order to neutralize basic conflicts between what schools value and the learning styles of urban black students. "Too many teachers and principals are still unaware of the areas of conflict between the culture of school and that of children raised in urban black communities." Important areas for consideration of this conflict are interactional or relational styles, communications styles and perceptions of involvement. The authors suggest ways of changing the rules for the benefit of students - and educators.

Good, Thomas L., (1979). Teacher effectiveness in elementary schools. Journal of Teacher Education. 30, 52-64.

"Teacher's managerial abilities have been found to relate positively to student achievement in every process-product study conducted to date." Good cites a number of studies which indicate that in pursuing a teacher effectiveness paradigm research shows that some teachers are able to make greater contributions to student achievement than others. This paper examines the concept of direct instruction (active teaching) and the teaching acts that are incorporated within the concept. He presents what is known and not know about direct instruction with some advice on using the data and putting the method into proper professional perspective.

Johnson, R. T. and Johnson, D. W. (1985). Student-student interaction: Ignored but powerful. Journal of Teacher Education. July/August, 22-26.

Cooperative learning experiences promote student sharing, promote higher motivation to learn, promote higher self-esteem and promote concern among students as to how fellow students are doing. the authors suggest that not all learning needs to be cooperative, but that the development of skills in the best use of the method can increase student achievement. "Research indicates that cooperation should be the dominant pattern in the classroom." It is in this light that the authors suggest we begin by introducing these skills in teacher training programs and, further, that school personnel model a cooperative school structure.

Lezotte, L. W. and Bancroft, B. A. (1985). School improvement based on effective schools research: A promising approach for economically disadvantaged and minority students. Journal of Negro Education. 54, 301-312.

Lezotte and Bancroft submit that many well-intentioned educators are engaged in "effective schools" programs that simply do not attend to student outcomes. School improvement efforts must be based on effective schools research (ESR). This paper describes a promising approach to school improvement and includes a number of premises on which to base the concept and operational definition of what constitutes effective practice in an effective school. A major focus of the paper is the idea that schools using ESR based processes show improvement by all students.

McDaniel, T. R. (1984). A Primer on motivation: Principles old and new. Phi Delta Kappan. September, 46-49.

Effective teachers use their motivational skills to develop a positive climate that nurtures the educational growth of children. Teachers are asked to invite school success by developing an eclectic combination of techniques and a number of these are described in McDaniel's article. Such principles as inviting success, cooperative learning, high expectations for success and interaction are discussed.

Paradise, L. V. and Block, C. (1984). The relationship of teacher student cognitive style to academic achievement. Journal of Research and Development in Education, 17, 57-61.

This study examines field dependent/independent cognitive style in elementary school students to determine if the distance between teacher-student cognitive style, that is, the amount of congruity between teacher and student cognitive style, had a significant relationship on academic achievement in reading and mathematics.

Purkey, S. C. and Smith, M. S. (1982). Too soon to cheer? Synthesis of research on effective schools. Educational Leadership, December 64-69.

The authors present their view of the effective and the ineffective in terms of the available research on schools that are working best. Based on their impressions of the literature Purkey and Smith present the important characteristics of a school involved in increasing or maintaining high student achievement. The issue of school culture is discussed in some detail.

Sergiovanni, T. J. (1984). Leadership and excellence in schooling. Educational Leadership. February, 4-13.

Sergiovanni provides a summary of the relationship between the five forces of leadership and excellence in schooling. The five forces are technical, human, educational, symbolic and cultural. The characteristic leadership role and related behavior exhibited by the school leader in each of these five forces is linked to school competence and excellence. The author cites corporate literature as well as the educational literature on excellence.

Sparks, G. M. (1983). Synthesis of research on staff development for effective teaching. Educational Leadership. 41, 65-72.

The author graphically discusses the conceptualization of staff development as a "nested process." She uses the terms inservice education and staff development interchangeably as she reviews numerous research studies conducted over the last 15 years or so. The research on the content of staff development is examined but the emphasis is on the process or delivery systems of staff development and how they affect teacher change and improvement. Further recommendations for staff development are made.

Tikunoff, W. J. (1983). Equitable schooling opportunity in a multicultural society. (Contract No. 400-83-0005). Washington, D.C.: National Institute of Education.

Effective bilingual education resembles effective educational practices in the monolingual classroom, however, several adaptations seem important in the bilingual classroom. Using the research that has accumulated on effective schools, the Significant Bilingual Instructional Features descriptive study (SBIF) and an analysis of activity structures this report describes a model for equitable schooling.

Walberg, H. J. (1986). What works in a nation still at risk? Educational Leadership, 44, 7-9.

The author has used the U.S. Department of Education's publication entitled "What Works: Research About Teaching and Learning (1986) to present a synopsis of useful information. The publication is written to provide clear and accurate research information on education to persons who can use and apply it - teachers, parents, school board members, taxpayers, etc. Walberg concludes by stating that there is much more to be done if students in this country are to receive a world class education.

Waxman, H. C. and Walberg, H. J. 1986. Teaching and productivity. Education and Urban Society, Vol. 18, 2, 211-220.

The authors strongly suggest that school districts need to know what instructional practices enhance student learning. A synthesis of the large number of research studies that has accumulated demonstrates a consistency of education effects and this places teaching on a sounder scientific basis. Walberg's theory of educational productivity (1984) is presented with nine proximal factors that require much attention or optimization to increase affective, behavioral and cognitive learning.

Webb, N. M. (1982). Student interaction and learning in small groups. Review of Educational Research, 52, 421-445.

Webb's paper reviews the work that has been carried out on the student's experience in a small group interaction setting and the results on student learning. Along with this most important aspect of small group interaction Webb also examines the cognitive process and social-emotional mechanisms that bridge interaction and achievement. In addition, the characteristics of children, characteristics of the group and the reward structure that predicts interaction are reported. This paper systematically examines the interaction within groups that influences learning and in this way serves to add to the literature on cooperative learning.

Weinstein, C. E. and Mayer, R. (1986). The teaching of learning strategies in the Handbook of Research on Teaching (3rd Edition). American Educational Research Association, Macmillan Publishing Co., N.Y. 315-327.

This paper presents the techniques that a learner can use to influence the learning/encoding process. Weinstein and Mayer present such learning strategies as coaching, imaging, summarizing, and notetaking that appear to affect the learner's affective or motivational state as he/she selects, acquires, organizes, or integrates new knowledge. "The rationale is that good teaching includes teaching students how to think and how

to motivate themselves." Eight categories of learning strategies are discussed with some of the research that supports each of these areas.

Worsham, A. W. and Austin, G. R. (1983). Effects of teaching thinking skills on SAT scores. Educational Leadership. November, 41, 50-51.

Students from a large predominantly black urban school system were the subjects of an organized effort to raise SAT scores. The students in an experimental group were given approximately 100 hours of instruction in thinking skills as part of their English curriculum. Their SAT scores increased an average of 42 points. The relationship between ability and achievement is well recognized and this study illustrates the need to examine another dimension; facility in the application of thinking skills.